Applications currently projected for PCS include handheld phones with low speed hand-off capabilities, one-way paging and messaging, CT-2, CT-2 plus paging, wireless loops specialized to both rural and urban requirements, cordless residential telephones, wireless PBXs and LANs, and a variety of mobile data services. Local exchange, cellular, cable television, paging, alternative access, MMDS, satellite, and public utility companies are all experimenting with ways to exploit economies of scope between PCS and the telecommunications systems they already manage. Of course each of these alternatives for delivering PCS can be used to supply a variety of services. Chances are, some of the current batch of PCS experiments will mature into services that one day will be offered widely. Many, probably most, of these approaches to PCS will disappear as the market renders its verdicts. But it is difficult to predict the winners and losers at this stage in the industry's development. Moreover, the market should allow for a flourishing of new services and technologies introduced over time as PCS providers seek to expand or substitute for their offerings and innovators seek to become PCS providers.

Large service areas may adversely affect the PCS industry's ability to quickly identify and develop a set of PCS services and technologies that meets marketplace needs in three ways—by reducing the number of market experiments, by obscuring important differences among various local communities they encompass, and by raising transactions cost

barriers to acquiring spectrum to develop PCS services targeted to the needs of local communities.

The potential for large service areas to reduce the number of market experiments with new approaches to PCS reflects the fact that the number of licenses sets an upper bound on the number of market experiments, while the number of licenses must vary inversely with the size of the territories licensed. Of course the number of trials of truly different approaches to PCS will be much smaller than the number of licenses. Most license holders will not be 100 percent innovators themselves, but will rely in part on the results of other firms' experiments. The number of truly different experiments with PCS will also be reduced by inevitable similarities in the approaches trialed by many firms and by multiple licenses held by some firms.

When the combined effects of these factors are taken into account, it is clear that the number of licenses awarded may significantly constrain the market's ability to experiment with new approaches to PCS, even when the absolute number of licenses awarded might appear to be large. If, for example, we assume that the number of innovative PCS offerings is five percent of the number of licenses and five licenses are awarded per service area, then licensing the 734 MSAs and RSAs would result in about 183 market experiments.

¹⁵ In general, there is no analogous constraint on the number of experiments with new products and technologies in industries that are not dependent on spectrum or other vital resources allocated by the government.

Licensing the 487 Basic Trading Areas would result in about 122 market experiments, which is considerably less than the number of firms that tried their hands at producing personal computers when that industry was in its preparadigmatic stage. Awarding five licenses to each of the 47 major trading areas would allow for only a dozen market experiments under these assumptions. So few market experiments would preclude many beneficial approaches to PCS.

Meeting Local Needs with PCS. Large service areas might also adversely limit the number of truly independent market experiments by obscuring important differences in their geographic subregions. In all likelihood, holders of PCS licenses for large service areas will implement area-wide approaches, or approaches focused on the needs of the largest population centers in these areas. Area-wide approaches in many cases may be the most productive use of PCS spectrum. The problem is that holders of licenses for large service areas may still implement area-wide approaches when different approaches targeted to the needs of local communities would produce greater benefits. This would not be a problem in an ideal world of perfect information and zero transaction costs, but in the real world the telecommunications needs of local communities are likely to be best understood by providers focused on telecommunications services in those communities.

Differences in the telecommunications needs and conditions of service between rural and urban communities and the ways that telecommunications providers and policy makers have responded to these differences illustrate the importance of variation among communities. Some of these differences are reflected in Table 1 on the next page, which compares LECs that borrow from the REA and the primarily rural participants in the National Exchange Carrier Association's (NECA) interstate access service tariff with the Regional Bell Operating Companies (RBOCs), whose telephone customers reside primarily in urban areas.

The statistics in the first two rows of Table 1 are reflections of the very different market environments faced by rural and urban telephone companies. The extremely low numbers of subscribers per route mile means that rural telephone companies have much higher non-traffic-sensitive costs per access line than do their urban counterparts. This is compounded by their inability to take advantage of economies of scale in switching that are available to urban telephone companies. The lower percentage of business access lines in rural areas also makes it more difficult for rural LECs to support high quality telephone services for residential subscribers because business users have traditionally made substantially more than proportionate contributions to common costs. Analogous concerns over the ability of rural markets to support stand alone cable systems

have prompted the exemption to the cable-telephone company cross-ownership ban for rural markets. 16

Table 1

RBOC and Rural Telephone Company Comparisons

Statistic	REA Borrowers	NECA Participating Companies	RBOCs
Average subscriber density per route mile	61		130 ²
Average Business access lines as % of total	14% ¹	18% ³	32% ²
% of U.S. access lines served ³	4%	5%	72%
% of U.S. central offices ³		28%	52%

^{1.} Rural Electrification Administration, U.S. Department of Agriculture, 1991 Statistical Report, Rural Telephone Borrowers, 1992.
2. United States Telephone Association, 1990 Statistics of the Local Exchange Carriers for the Year 1989, 1990.

The importance of knowledge gained in the process of serving local communities is also reflected in the sources of

^{3.} National Exchange Carrier Association, "Modernizing Rural America--A NECA Member Study," 1992; and United States Telephone Association, "Phone Fax--1992," 1991.

The Commission has recently proposed increasing the population threshold for classifying an area as rural for purposes of qualifying for the exemption to include all areas with fewer than 10,000 people. Telephone Company-Cable Television Cross-Ownership Rules, Sections 63.54-63.58, Second Further Notice of Proposed Rulemaking, FCC 92-327 (August 14, 1992).

rural and urban PCS innovations described in pioneer preference requests. For the most part, pioneer preference requests for innovations in the provision of rural services have come from companies, including LECs, already providing rural telecommunications services. Pioneer preference requests for innovations with applications to urban areas have come primarily from firms serving urban areas. This is precisely the pattern we would expect to see if the opportunities for new services in local areas are most apparent to firms who already do business there. Licensing large service areas incorporating economically distinct subregions will encourage a focus on common denominator services with broader geographic appeal and make the development of services targeted to the needs of local communities less likely.

Market Failure Impedes Beneficial Partitioning. Large service areas would not hinder the development of PCS services targeted to the needs of local communities if there were no transactional barriers to breaking larger service areas up into smaller units (partitioning) when there were economic benefits to doing so. Unfortunately, the aggregation of heterogeneous subgroups of users can lead to a particular type of market failure in which license holders implement approaches that appeal to the population of the larger area as a whole when differentiated services targeted to the unique needs and conditions of the area's subregions would provide greater economic benefits.

The reasons why this type of market failure is likely to occur when diverse populations are incorporated in large service areas are easily illustrated. Consider, as an example, a single, licensed service area composed of four equal sized subregions, A, B, C, and D. The PCS license for the larger area could be implemented with an area-wide approach. While this approach may meet the needs of a substantial number of people throughout the area, it may fail to support different uses demanded in the different subregions. For example the configuration of micro cells and features supported by the area-wide licensee might be inadequate for the provision of wireless loops to remote locations in A, a wireless LAN in an industrial park in B, an advanced emergency communications service for a large hospital in C, and for a telepoint service to replace pay phones in a large regional shopping mall in D.

The area-wide licensee obtains some benefits from economies of scale and its users benefit from network externalities due to the implementation of the same approach over a wide area¹⁷, as shown below.

The network externalities come from having more territory and more subscribers using the same approach, making the service more valuable to each subscriber than if the approach differed from subregion to subregion. For example, the same approach may mean that uses of PCS in one subregion are transferable to other subregions. In contrast, customization of PCS approaches to local market conditions may limit the transferability of certain uses while supporting more highly valued local uses.

Table 2

Net benefits from PCS as a function of subregions served by same licensee

Number of subregions served	<pre>Net benefits (in \$ mil.)</pre>
1	1.0
2	2.5
3	4.5
4	7.0

Suppose that four different approaches specialized to meet the unique service needs of each subregion would produce \$2.0 million in benefits net of costs for users in each subregion. The total value (or surplus) of using the designated spectrum with somewhat different approaches in each subregion would be \$8 million--\$1 million more than the value of an area-wide approach with greater scale economies and network externalities. The net benefits of the area-wide and differentiated approaches are compared in Table 3.

Table 3
User Benefits as a Function of Subregions Covered

Number of subregions covered	Net benefits from area-wide licensee (in \$ mil.)	Net benefits from different licensees for each subregion (in \$ mil.)
1	1.0	2.0
2	2.5	4.0
3	4.5	6.0
4	7.0	8.0

To keep things simple, assume that licensees are able to collect all of the net benefits of their services through the prices they charge. If the PCS license for the entire service area were put up for bid, either in a federal auction or by a private party who won the license in a lottery, the provider with an area-wide approach would be willing to bid up to \$7.0 million for it. But, each of the providers with a subregion-specific approach would be willing to bid only \$2.0 million for it. So the license would be acquired by the provider with the area-wide approach. Furthermore, it is highly unlikely that the provider with the area-wide approach, once it had the license, would be persuaded to divide it up and sell the subregions to people wanting to implement subregion-specific approaches. If asked by a potential provider with a subregion-specific approach to name a price at which it would be willing to sell the spectrum rights to that subregion, the area-wide provider would have to state a price of no less than \$2.5 million--the difference between the value of the approach applied to all four of the subregions and its value if only three subregions are covered. This is far more than a provider with a subregionspecific approach could justify spending.

Even though the license would be more valuable if it was divided up and used for the subregion-specific approaches, an area-wide approach would be implemented unless either (1) there was a single bidder who recognized the total value of the license for the specialized approaches, or (2) potential

service providers from each of the subregions got together to make a joint bid for the license. The single bidder scenario is unlikely to happen in many real world markets for telecommunications services because the knowledge of the needs and conditions for the supply of service in local areas is specific knowledge acquired largely by doing business in those areas—or other areas like them—that is difficult to communicate to others who do not have similar experience. For the proponents of the specialized approaches in the subregions to get together to form a consortium to bid for the license for the entire area, each would have to be aware of the existence of the other three proponents of different approaches that as yet have no commercial presence in the market. This seems unlikely in most situations.

The preceding example with a large service area that could be divided into four distinct subregions shows that starting with small areas is more conducive to the selection of the most beneficial approaches from a number of options. Alternatively, suppose there was only one PCS approach that five firms potentially might offer within a large service area. One firm intends to serve the entire area, while the other four would serve one subregion each. The first firm would benefit from some economies of scale, yielding the pattern of net benefits shown in Table 2 (\$1.0 million for one subregion going up to \$7.0 million for four subregions). On the other hand, the other four firms might be more efficient at serving each subregion because of their local

focus (\$2.0 million in net benefits per subregion). The economies of scale are outweighed by the benefits of the local firms' better understanding of the needs of users in their subregions. As in the case of services targeted to local needs analyzed above, licensing large service areas would also impede the provision of services with more general appeal by more effective local providers.

It is important to note that licensing the subregions independently would not be a barrier to combining them to create a larger area with a single approach if it were beneficial to do so. To continue with the example developed above, if the value of specialized approaches were \$1.5 million in each subregion (rather than \$2.0 million) and the subregions were each licensed independently, the net benefit to society of PCS service could be increased by \$1 million by combining the subregions for an area-wide approach. In this case a potential provider with an area-wide approach could buy the licenses from the licensees with specialized approaches by paying slightly over \$1.5 million for each and still clear a profit of almost \$1 million. In other words, network externalities, economies of scale, and imperfect information make it difficult to divide a large service area into smaller ones, even when it is beneficial to do so. these economic forces do not stand in the way of aggregating smaller areas into larger ones when there are advantages to larger service areas.

3. Small service areas will put PCS industry assets in the hands of effective management more rapidly

Small service areas will also facilitate the achievement of the second element of an efficient PCS industry structure--placing the industry's assets in the hands of the most effective owners and managers. An industry's assets are transferred to its most effective managers during the early "shakeout" phase of the paradigmatic stage as the most efficient producers of products and services based on the dominant approach outcompete those who are less efficient. The market can do a better job of identifying effective managers and owners if it starts with a large pool of managerial and ownership candidates. By increasing the number of licenses awarded, small service areas enlarge the initial pool of owners and managers from which those who eventually will run the industry will be selected. It also ensures that the pool of managerial talent will include individuals who understand the importance of the localized nature of the demand for many telecommunications services.

To the extent that the ascent of more effective owners is the underlying force driving industry consolidation, there is no reason to expect that, for industries like cellular or PCS, less spectrum and territory would have to change hands in the long run if larger service areas were awarded. The probability of a service area starting out under the control of effective management should be independent of its size.

Thus the percentage of all territory licensed that would have to be sold to better managers in the long run would be the same regardless of the size of service areas licensed.

4. There is no reason to believe that larger license areas will facilitate the achievement of a more efficient geographic structure for PCS

We have seen that small license areas should facilitate the selection of appropriate technologies and services for PCS and that they should also facilitate the ascendance of effective ownership and management. Therefore, if large license areas better serve the public interest in PCS than small license areas, it can only be because they make easier the achievement of the third characteristic of an efficient industry for PCS—an efficient pattern of geographic concentration. Even then, to advocate larger license areas on this basis it is necessary to show that the benefits of larger license areas for achieving the appropriate degree of geographic concentration outweigh their deleterious effects on the selection of services and technologies and on the development of effective management.

The argument in the NPRM for PCS license areas larger than those licensed for cellular is primarily an empirical argument based on one interpretation of events in the cellular industry. I examine this interpretation very closely in this subsection. The argument for larger PCS license areas also assumes that PCS services will be

sufficiently similar to cellular to warrant a confident generalization from lessons learned in the established industry to policies for the one that is emerging. I examine this assumption as well.

Weak Evidence for Large License Areas from Cellular <u>Clustering</u>. The evidence for significant economic advantages to providing cellular service to areas larger than the MSAs and RSAs licensed is extremely weak. The mere fact that "the system that exists today has effective operating service areas that are much larger than the initial division would imply"18 does not by itself constitute evidence of economies associated with larger contiguous service areas. As the Commission points out, the nature of LEC set asides created a "de facto system of large regional licenses" for the larger LECs. The awards of nonwireline licenses also produced significant clusters of contiguous service areas under common management. However, because certain "large regional licenses" are byproducts of the manner in which licenses were awarded and not outcomes of the interplay of market forces, they cannot be taken as evidence of economic advantages inherent in larger service areas. Only events following the initial allocation of licenses can shed light on the advantages of creating larger effective service areas as an impetus for the industry's consolidation. Here the evidence is mixed at best.

¹⁸ NPRM, paragraph 56.

¹⁹ ibid.

Comparisons of patterns of cellular system ownership show that clustering has not developed to the scale of MTAs and generally not even to BTAs. Table 4 shows the many separately-owned cellular systems in three randomly selected MTAs (numbers 1 (Atlanta), 24 (Memphis), and 47 (Wichita)) and their associated BTAs. The BTAs, especially the most populous ones, tend to have more than two separately-owned carriers. This pattern does not support the notion that service areas as large as MTAs are necessary to achieve scale economies. It is also worth noting that to the extent that a regional cluster owned by one cellular company overlaps regional clusters owned by other companies, it is generally a pattern of partial overlaps with a number of owners because the clusters have very different boundaries. This means that the owner of a cluster of contiguous service areas faces a number of different owners as competitors in different service areas within its cluster. If MTAs (or BTAs) had been licensed for cellular service, then each MTA (or BTA) would be served by only two owners facing each other everywhere throughout a large region. Each owner would then have to deal with one rather than many competitors, which would make collusion easier. So competitiveness objectives would be better served by awarding smaller license areas, even if the natural geographic unit of operation was larger.

1

Other Reasons for Consolidation. As the Commission observes in the NPRM, consolidation has proceeded through acquisitions of both neighboring service areas and

Table 4

Cellular Owners and Cellular Service Areas By Trading Areas

	Atlanta MTA					
<u>Area</u>	1990 Population (000)		er of ular Areas	of S	ated N eparat ed Sys	ely-
MTA #1 (Atlanta, GA)	6,942	MSAs 8	RSAs 21	Total 32**	Wire 18	Non- Wire 16
BTA #6 (Albany- Tifton, GA)	325	1	4	7	3	4
BTA #22 (Athens, GA)	166	1	0	2	1	1
BTA #24 (Atlanta, GA)	3,197	1	6	11	6	5
BTA #26 (Augusta, GA)	521	1	4	10	5	5
BTA #76 (Chattanooga, TN)	511	1	4	7	4	4
BTA #85 (Cleveland, TN)	87	0	1	4	3	1
BTA #92 (Columbus, GA)	342	1	3	9	6	3
BTA #102 (Dalton, GA)	99	0	1	2	1	1
BTA #160 (Gainesville, GA)	170	0	1	2	1	1
BTA #237 (LaGrange, GA)	64	0	1	3	2	1
BTA #271 (Macon- Warner Robins, GA)	689	1	6	14	8	6
BTA #334 (Opelka- Auburn, AL)	124	0	2	5	3	2
BTA #384 (Rome, GA)	115	0	1	2	1	1
BTA #410 (Savannah, GA)	630	1	5	9	4	5

	Memphis MTA					
Area	1990 Population (000)	Numbe Celli Service	ılar	of Se	parat	Number ely- stems*
MTA #24 (Memphis, TN)	3,500	MSAs 2	RSAs	Total	Wire 8	Non- Wire 11
BTA #49 (Blytheville, AR)	79	0	2	4	2	2 .
BTA #94 (Columbus- Starksville, MS	166	0	3	6	3	3
BTA #120 (Dyersburg- Union City, TN)	114	0	2	5	4	2
BTA #175 (Greenville- Greenwood, MS)	214	0	3	6	4	2
BTA #210 (Jackson, MS)	616	1	6	10	3	7
BTA #211 (Jackson, TN)	255	0	2	5	4	1
BTA #290 (Memphis, TN)	1,396	1	8	11	5	6
BTA #292 (Meridian, MS)	200	0	3	6	3	3
BTA #315 (Natchez, MS)	73	0	2	3	2	1
BTA #449 (Tupelo- Corinth, MS)	292	0	2	3	1	2
BTA #455 (Vicksburg, MS) 59	0	2	5	3	2

		Wichita MTA				
Area	1990 Population (000)		er of ular Areas	of S	eparat	Number cely- stems*
MTA #47 (Wichita, KS)	1,125	MSAs	RSAs 14	Total	Wire 4	Non- Wire 8
BTA #114 (Dodge City, KS)	38	0	1	2	1	1 .
BTA #163 (Garden City, KS)	65	0	2	2	1	1
BTA #170 (Great Bond,	KS) 41	0	1	2	1	1
BTA #187 (Hayes, KS)	61	0	4	2	1	1
BTA #200 (Hutchinson, KS)	125	0	3	4	1	3
BTA #253 (Liberal, KS)	54	0	3	4	2	2
BTA #396 (Salina, KS)	143	0	4	4	1	3
BTA #472 (Wichita, KS)	597	1	6	8	3	6

^{*} Analyzed by majority owner.

^{**} GTE and USCC are both wireline and nonwireline owners within MTA #1.

noncontiguous, stand-alone service areas.²⁰ Therefore, motives other than placing contiguous service areas under common management must have contributed to the industry's consolidation. This would seem to be reflected in the fact that most of the major cellular carriers own a mix of regional clusters and stand alone service areas.

Consolidation in asset ownership, for whatever reason, will necessarily produce an increase in geographic concentration and the growth of regional clusters when assets are tied to licensed service areas, as they are in cellular. Even if service areas were acquired entirely without regard to location, some clustering would appear as the industry consolidates because even random selections will sometimes draw contiguous service areas. And this will happen with increasing frequency as the industry becomes more concentrated and the acquiring firms occupy progressively more geography.

There are also other mechanisms unrelated to the efficiencies of large license areas that may give rise to some regional clustering. For example, regional clusters might develop if the market for cellular service in any given license area is better understood by owners of nearby areas than by owners of more distant areas. Bids for a license by nearby owners would then incorporate smaller allowances for risk and uncertainty than would bids from more distant

²⁰ ibid.

owners--so that nearby owners would win a disproportionate share of these auctions.

Of the arguments offered for why efficiency gains have been driving the trend toward regional concentration in ownership, most prominent have been claims that common ownership of contiquous service areas facilitates sharing of subscriber data bases and resolves conflicts over the pricing of roamer services to customers from nearby service areas. Of course the importance of these claimed economies must be demonstrated empirically, and on the basis of the evidence reviewed above it is hard to conclude that they have exerted a significant influence on the pattern of industry aggregation. Nevertheless, it is worth pointing out that whatever the magnitude of problems with shared data bases and roamer pricing conflicts in the cellular industry, they will be considerably less significant for PCS. The cellular industry has begun to establish formal mechanisms for handling roamer traffic and facilitating beneficial cooperation, including data base sharing, among operators of neighboring service areas. These mechanisms, or others patterned after them, which had to evolve with the cellular industry, will be available to PCS from the outset.

Limited Clustering in Other Industries. Regional clustering among the daily papers owned by the major newspaper chains appears to be an example of clustering that arose independent of any claimed advantages of regional

concentration. Illustrations 1, 2, and 3, attached at the end of this paper, show the locations of daily newspapers operated by the three largest newspaper chains (measured by the number of dailies)—Gannett Newspapers, Thomson Newspapers, and the Donrey Media Group. While there has been considerable (and inconclusive) debate over the benefits of chain ownership in newspapers, the benefits from regional clusters of papers have never been viewed as a critical force driving consolidation. Yet the locations of the papers for each of these chains exhibit distinct regional clusters.²¹

part &

It is worth noting that the once lively debate over the implications of increasing concentration in the newspaper industry due to the growth of chains has cooled considerably because what once seemed to be an inexorable trend toward chain domination of the industry has slowed dramatically while a significant fraction of daily newspapers are still operated as single proprietorships. This should give pause to those predicting that the trends of the last couple of years in the nine year old cellular industry are sure portents of a future industry dominated by firms managing regional clusters of service areas.

Cable television is an example of a communications industry with a pattern of regional clustering similar to that seen in the newspaper industry. The cable industry

If the appropriate RSA or MSA were shaded in for each paper identified on this map, regional concentration in newspapers would appear to be much greater than what is suggested by the maps used to show the geographic coverage of the larger cellular operators.

developed from small license areas (often municipalities).

Distinct regional clusters mixed with isolated stand alone systems are evident in the following maps showing the counties in which the three largest multiple system operators (MSOs) own cable systems.²² (See Illustrations 4, 5, and 6 at the end of this paper.) Again, industry clustering has not risen to the scale of MTAs or even BTAs, as shown in Table 5. As with newspapers, clusters have arisen independent of claims that they produce economic benefits.

5. There is no advantage to mixing large and small license areas

The preceding analysis has shown that large license areas slow experimentation and impede the process of identifying better managers. Awarding large license areas cannot guarantee that the recipients will be best qualified to develop and operate them. These disadvantages offset possible advantages of having large license areas.

Furthermore, there is no way to know how many most-effective PCS approaches and best-qualified managers will be local and how many will cover a larger area. Given the problems raised above that make it more difficult to break up large license areas than to assemble large service areas from small ones, there are clear advantages to starting out with small license areas. Because we don't know what is most efficient, it is

Sources for the information represented in Illustrations 4,5, and 6 are the Cable and Station Coverage Atlas (1992) and Broadcasting and Cable Marketplace (1992).

Table 5

Cable Systems By Trading Areas

	Atlanta MTA				
<u>Area</u>	1990 Population (000)	Number of Separately Licensed Systems	Estimated Number of Separately- Owned Systems		
MTA #1 (Atlanta, GA)	6,942	782	71		
BTA #6 (Albany- Tifton, GA)	325	61	10		
BTA #22 (Athens, GA)	166	39	7		
BTA #24 (Atlanta, GA)	3,197	227	26		
BTA #26 (Augusta, GA)	521	63	11		
BTA #76 (Chattanooga, TN)	511	58	10		
BTA #85 (Cleveland, TN)	87	11	5		
BTA #92 (Columbus, GA)	342	38	14		
BTA #102 (Dalton, GA)	99	10	2		
BTA #160 (Gainesville, GA)	170	28	6		

better to start with small service areas and let the market determine the appropriate level of regional aggregation than to run the risk of permanent structural inefficiencies posed by the threat of market failures with large service areas.

6. Are MSAs and RSAs really too small?

The assumption that the MSAs and RSAs are too small for an efficient cellular service is just the flip side of the argument that there are efficiencies to be realized by licensing one of the larger area options raised in the NPRM. The arguments and evidence advanced in support of this proposition are weak, as shown by the analysis and evidence presented above. There is no empirical evidence that MSAs and RSAs are too small for PCS.

It is also significant that no evidence of hardships caused by the limited size of MSAs and RSAs has been advanced by proponents of larger service areas. If MSAs and RSAs were too small to permit viable operations, operators of stand-a-lone licenses should have found it financially difficult to build out their service areas in compliance with the time tables specified in their licenses. What we have seen instead is that only five of the 1468 licenses for cellular service have not been built out according to schedule.²³

Paul Kagan Associates, The RSA Newsletter, October 31, 1992, p. 8.

III. Five licenses per area are better than four or three

In almost every respect, the question regarding the number of PCS providers to license per service area can be answered by stating that more is better.²⁴ The only real cost of licensing five rather than a smaller number of providers is the opportunity cost that is the value of non PCS services that otherwise could be provided with the spectrum used by a fifth (or fourth) PCS licensee.²⁵ As noted earlier, the administrative costs associated with granting more licenses will be small relative to the public benefits from additional diversity and competition.

One important benefit from awarding five PCS licenses per service area rather than three or four was discussed in some detail in Section II of this paper. Market experimentation with alternative approaches to PCS and managers of PCS systems will proceed more rapidly if more licenses are awarded. Thus, we might expect the market to do a better job selecting technologies, services, and effective operators with more licenses to work with.

This assumes, of course, that the addition of another license does not reduce the amount of spectrum per license to the point that PCS services could not be viable.

The magnitude of this opportunity cost can only be assessed by a careful examination of other services that might use this spectrum. However, the flexibility that PCS licensees will be given in designing their service offerings should reduce this opportunity cost considerably.